



# The design of stellar interferometers I

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# Outline



- What's the science?
- Fundamental limits—the photon limited signal to noise ratio
- Practical limits I: atmospheric effects and mitigation techniques
- Practical limits II: instrumental and optical limitations
- Summary



# The science drivers



- Wavelength coverage
- Bandwidth  $\Delta\lambda$
- Resolution:  $\lambda_0/b$ 
  - ✦ Coverage of the  $(u, v)$  plane
- What imaging capabilities do you want?
- Practical limitations: budget & staffing

# Fringe detection I

- The *complex coherence* is the technical term for the *theoretical* fringe visibility and is usually written as

$$\gamma = |\gamma| \exp\{i\phi\}$$

- We want to measure  $|\gamma|$  and  $\phi$  separately. How do we do this in practice?

# Fringe detection II

- Formally,

$$|\gamma|^2 = \text{Re}^2\{\gamma\} + \text{Im}^2\{\gamma\}$$
$$\tan\phi = \text{Im}\{\gamma\} / \text{Re}\{\gamma\}$$

- For smallish bandwidths,

$$\text{Im}\{\gamma(x)\} = \text{Re}\{\gamma(x + \lambda/4)\}$$

(strictly, we want to do a Hilbert transform, but that's another story).

# Implications

- When the visibility is small (for example,  $b \gg \lambda/d$ ), the “correlation”  $V^2$  will be *really, really* small.
- This limits the *dynamic range* of the interferometer; i.e., the ability to detect low surface brightness features.

# The bottom line: the SNR

- As a consequence, we normally estimate the “correlation” or square of the complex coherence function  $|\gamma|^2$ .
- The *measured* visibility is  $V^2$  and the SNR is

$$V^2 N \Delta t \left[ \frac{T / \Delta t}{2(1 + 2N \Delta t V^2)} \right]^{1/2}$$

where  $N$  is the photon flux thru one aperture,  $\Delta t$  the sample time and  $T$  the total integration time.

# Practical difficulties

- The *observed* “correlation” or square of the visibility is always *less* than  $|\gamma|^2$  :

$$V^2 = \eta^2 |\gamma|^2$$

where  $\eta < 1$  is a time-varying loss factor.

- *The reliable estimation of the visibility loss factor  $\eta$  is the biggest problem remaining in optical/IR interferometry.*





# The constraints imposed by the Earth's atmosphere

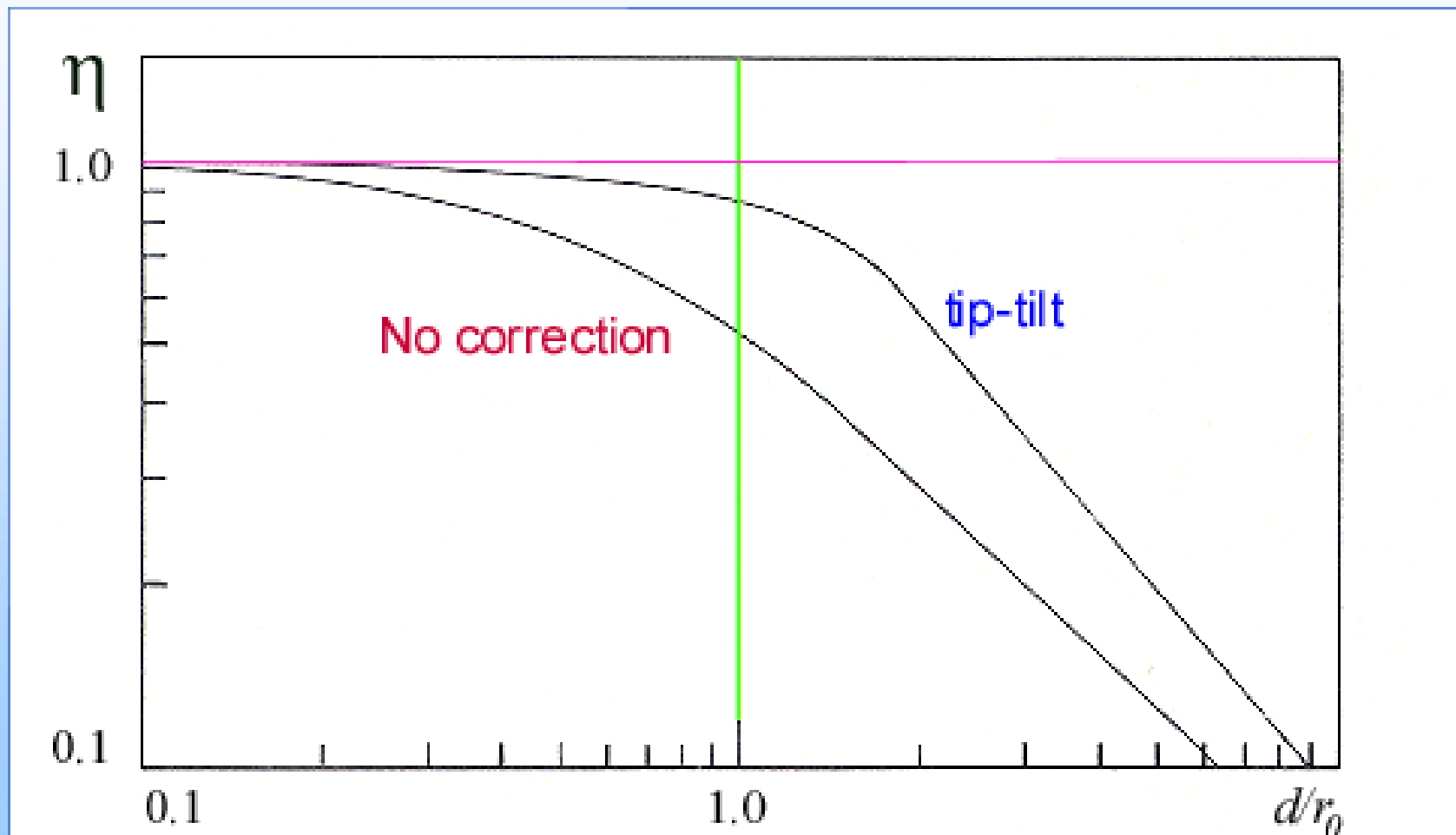
# Aperture size

- Visibility loss depends on  $d/r_0$ .
- Since  $r_0$  varies as  $\lambda^{6/5}$ , the optimal aperture size will depend on the wavelength.
- Larger apertures can be used in the IR than in the visible part of the spectrum.

# Adaptive optics

- Adaptive optics is essential to reduce the effects of atmospheric turbulence and instrumental effects (i.e., image motion due to gear errors, etc.).
- All interferometers use at least “tip-tilt” wavefront correction.
- Recall:  $\eta > 0.9$  when  $\alpha < 0.3\lambda/d$

# Tip-tilt correction



# Tip-tilt servo performance I

- In practice, *noise* restricts the useful bandwidth for a tip-tilt servo.
- Finite bandwidth means less than perfect correction (high frequency tip-tilt components remain).
- With a Taylor wind speed  $v_T$ , the coherence loss is  $\sim 10\%$  when the cut-off frequency  $f_0$  is  $\sim v_T/\pi d \approx (r_0/d)/(10t_0)$

# Tip-tilt servo performance II

- Typical bandwidths are in the range 20 ~ 100 Hz.
- Performance also depends on the detector and amount of light. The effect of noise is to add fluctuations:  $\langle \Delta \theta^2 \rangle = 4 \Delta f_B \theta_0^2 / N$  where  $N$  is the photon flux,  $\theta_0$  is the effective image size, and  $\Delta f_B \approx f_0$  is the noise bandwidth of the servo.

# Spatial filtering

- Passing light through a spatial filter (pinhole or single-mode fiber) removes aberrations. The factor  $\eta \approx 1$ .
- Tip-tilt is still needed to guide light into filter/fiber.
- Examples: the FLUOR detector (used at IOTA), the pinhole filter at COAST...

# Optical path length I

- To observe an interference signal, the OPL difference must be less than the *coherence length*  $\Lambda_{coh} = \lambda_0^2 / \Delta\lambda$ .
- The large amplitude, low frequency atmospheric fluctuations basically introduce a slowly fluctuating OPL difference. Its importance depends on the bandwidth.



# Optical path length II

- Small amplitude, high frequency fluctuations cause phase jitter during individual sample times  $\Delta t$ .
- Ideally,  $\Delta t \ll t_0$ , the atmospheric coherence time.
- From the Taylor hypothesis,  $t_0$  is related to  $r_0$  by  $t_0 = 0.314r_0/v_T$ .

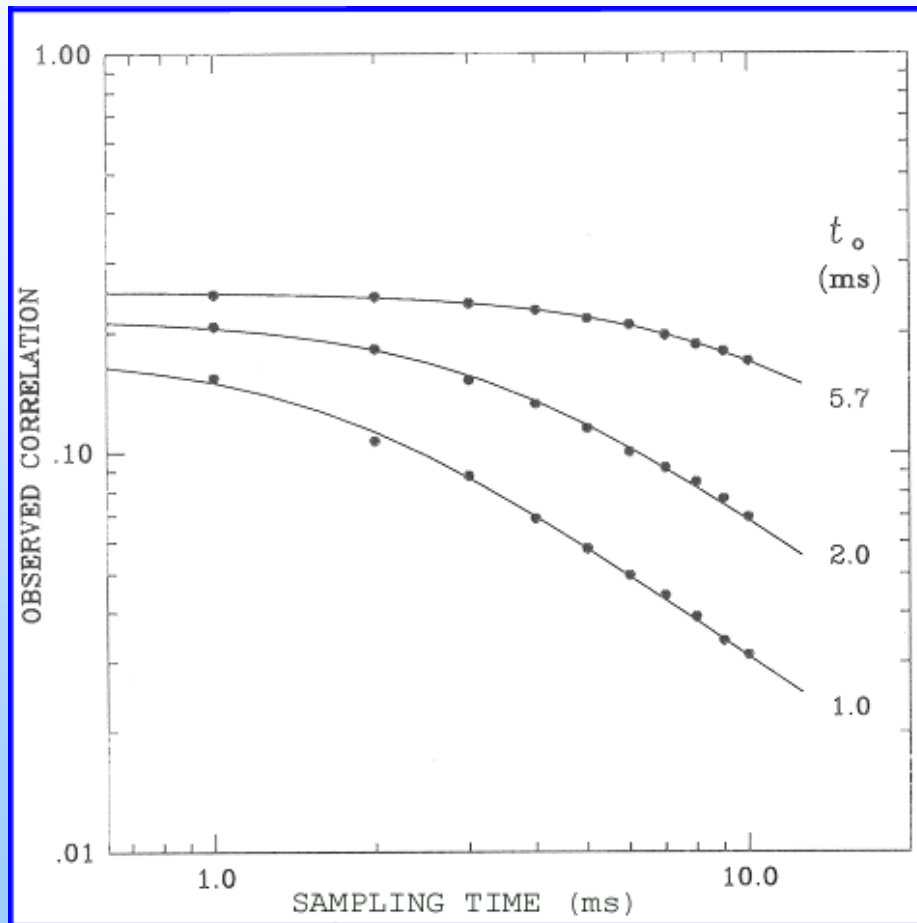
# Effect of sampling time

- Buscher defined the atmospheric coherence time  $t_0$  through

$$D_\phi(t) = \langle |\phi(t') - \phi(t'+t)|^2 \rangle = (t/t_0)^{5/3}$$

- If the sampling time  $\Delta t$  is greater than  $t_0$  the phase fluctuations reduce the visibility/correlation.
- However, we can use Buscher's results to extrapolate to zero sample time:

# Correlation vs. sample time



Solid lines are fits to the measured correlation data (adapted from Davis & Tango, 1996).

# Caveats

- The 2, 3,... ms sample times are synthesized by binning 1 ms samples.
- The data points are therefore not independent.
- At low correlation ( $C < 0.2$ , approx.) or when  $t_0 \sim 1$  ms or less, the method tends not to work (better algorithms?).

# Limitations to performance

- The coherence time  $t_0$  is 1 ~ 5 ms (visible).
- As the OPL rate increases, mechanical vibration becomes an important consideration.
- One must also limit vibrational noise from air conditioning, etc.

# Controlling the OPL noise

- Coarse control is provided using motorized carriages.
- Fine control is often done with PZTs
- Voice coil actuators are also in common use.
- Frequently several levels of isolation are used.

# Dispersion

- The external OPL difference is *in vacuo* (flat Earth approximation).
- If path compensation is in air, differential dispersion becomes an issue.
  - ✦ *Dispersion compensation can be used (variable amounts of suitable glasses)*
  - ✦ *Alternatively, the compensator system can be evacuated.*

# Metrology

- The OPL difference must be monitored with an accuracy of  $\ll \lambda_0$ .
- Laser metrology is essential.
- The amount of metrology needed depends on the design. *Astrometric* interferometry is especially demanding and requires additional metrology.



# Calibration

- In theory, one *calibrates* measurements by observing calibrators with known visibility and the science target.
- In practice, calibrators must be close to the science target in order to get an accurate estimate of  $\eta$ .



# Instrumental factors

# Optics

- Visibility loss is proportional to the mean squared phase variation:

$$|\eta|^2 = 1 - \Delta^2 \Phi = 1 - (2\pi M)^2$$

where the *total* optical *figure* is  $\lambda M$ .

- If the average figure per surface is  $\lambda/m$ , then  $M$  will be approximately

$$m/N^{1/2}$$

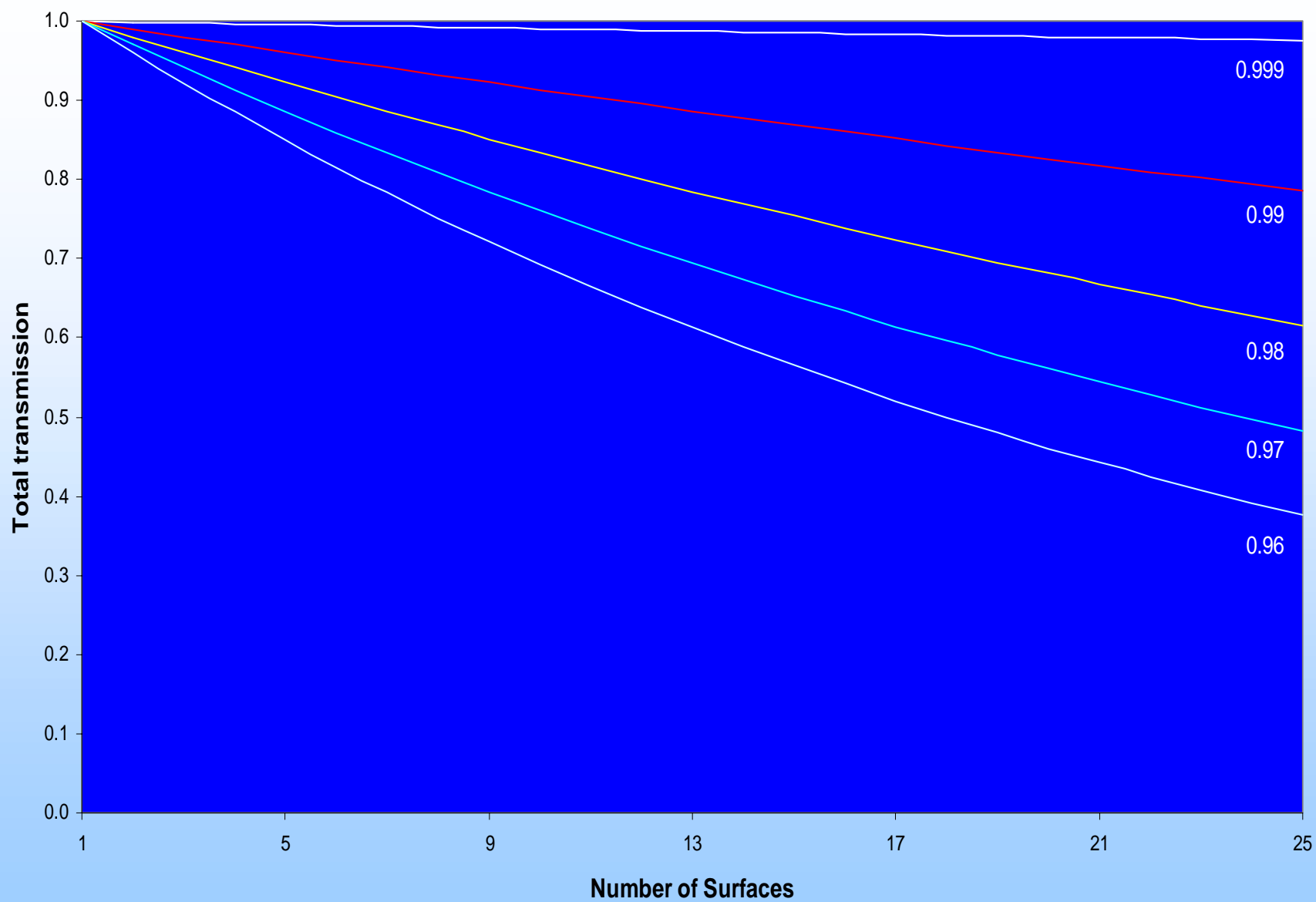
where  $N$  is the number of surfaces (often classified information!).

# Optical alignment

- The alignment of the optics is critical, particularly for non-planar elements.
- Off-axis aberrations
- Shear (incorrect superposition of pupils) is unique to interferometers.
- “Artificial stars”—often used in auto-collimation mode—are essential.

# Optical Thin Film Coatings

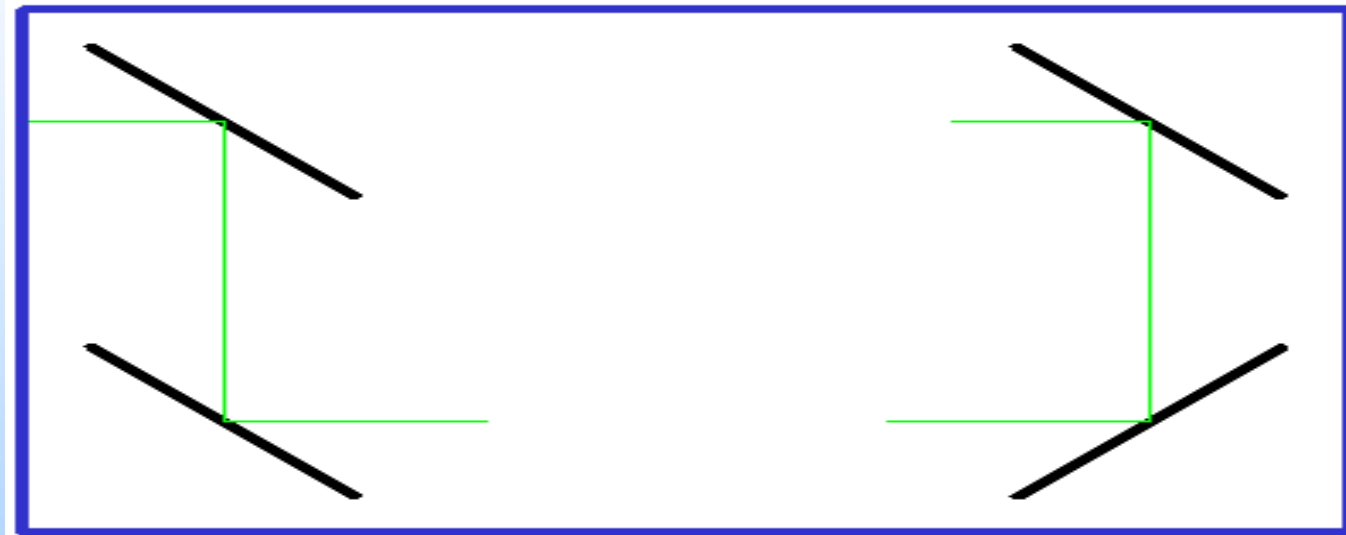
- If  $r$  is the reflectivity of a single surface, the overall transmission is proportional to  $r^N$ , where  $N$  is the number of surfaces.
- OTF coatings are routinely used to minimize losses, but beware!
- Performance in the field is often much below manufacturers' specs.



# Polarization

- The visibility will be reduced by the factor  $\eta_P = (I_p \cos \Delta\phi + I_s) / (I_p + I_s)$  where  $\Delta\phi$  is the phase difference between s & p polarizations.
- Geometry and OTF coatings can both introduce phase shifts.
- Solution: separate the polarizations!

# Geometric phase: example



- Note: this is also known as the Pancharatnam or Berry phase.



# Diffraction

- Interferometers are unique. They have long internal paths & relatively small apertures and near-field diffraction effects cannot be neglected.
- Unequal *internal* paths lead to visibility losses.
- Diffraction effects are particularly serious for longer wavelengths.

# Control & data acquisition

- Modern control systems (servos) use computers to “close the loop.”
  - ⊕ Intrinsically more flexible than traditional “hard-wired” systems, but...
  - ⊕ They are not perfect! *Latency* is the biggest problem.
- Consider using real-time operating systems (POSIX standard, RT-Linux).

# Embedded processing

- A common solution is to use “embedded processing.”
- Data flows between processors are critical. TCP/IP is potentially dodgy. Examples of critical systems:
  - ✦ Metrology, the OPL controller, and fringe detection/tracking system.
  - ✦ Telescope control & tip-tilt system.

# Data acquisition

- Details will depend on the way the fringe visibility is measured.
- System must provide feedback to the observer about the quality of the data.
- A standard procedure for recording and archiving data must be adopted.



# Summary



- Operating wavelength, bandwidth, site location
- Match apertures to  $r_0$
- Tip/tilt adaptive optics
- Optical path length compensation & phase stability
- Dispersion: vacuum or air



## Summary, cont'd



- Metrology
- Optics: quality & quantity
- OTF coatings
- Polarization—dynamic & geometrical phase shifts
- Diffraction
- Control & data acquisition systems